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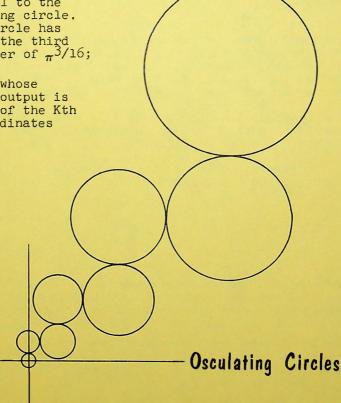
A circle of unit diameter is centered at the origin. Successive circles are drawn, each tangent to the preceding circle as shown. The points of tangency are alternately on the right and on top.

The diameter of each circle is numerically equal to the area of the preceding circle. Thus, the second circle has a diameter of $\pi/4$; the third circle has a diameter of $\pi^3/16$; and so on.

Write a subroutine whose argument is K; the output is to be the diameter of the Kth circle and the coordinates of its center.

NUMBER 8





The Payday Problem

A firm pays its employees twice a month, according to the following schedule:

- 1. Pay checks will normally be issued on the 5th and 20th of each month, if those days are working days.
- If the 5th or 20th fall on weekends (that is, on Saturdays or Sundays) payment will be made on the preceding Friday.
- If the 5th or 20th fall on a legal holiday, other than a Saturday or Sunday, payment will be made on the next following working day. Legal holidays are defined as follows: January 1, July 4, December 25, the third Monday in February, the last Monday in May, the first Monday in September, and the last Thursday in November.
- If the 5th or 20th fall on a Saturday or Sunday, and the preceding Friday is a legal holiday, payment will be made on the preceding Thursday.

Problem: What is the shortest elapsed time between paydays, and the longest elapsed time, in the next 50 years?



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Contributing editors: Richard Andree

William C. McGee

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Irwin Greenwald

The Altair 8800

The Altair 8800 computer, made by MITS, Inc., P.O. box 8636, 6328 Linn, N.E., Albuquerque, New Mexico 87108, was announced around the first of this year. The basic machine, with 256 8-bit words of storage, sells for \$542 in kit form, or \$755 assembled. The basic machine has volatile storage. Input is by means of toggle switches; output is through binary lights.

The machine we worked with had 1024 words of storage; this size is \$615 in kit form or \$830 assembled. The promotional literature says that 256 words of storage is "enough memory to do many machine language procedures and some control applications." This should be taken rather cautiously; there are few real problems whose solution can be programmed in that size machine.

The operation code length of the Altair is a full word of 8 bits. An instruction, therefore, consists of one or more words. For example, the operation ADD ONE TO ACCUMULATOR is a one-word instruction (octal 074). IMMEDIATE takes two words:

> 306 037

(add decimal 31 to the contents of the accumulator). of the normal instructions that one expects on a computer take three words, such as:

> 072 126 002

for which the O72 is LOAD ACCUMULATOR, and the other two words indicate address 1126 octal, as follows:

> 00 000 010 01 010 110 0 0 2 1 2 6

(In the basic machine with 256 words of storage, the third of those three instruction words would always be zero.)

The 8800 uses the Intel 8080 chip as its central processor, and hence the Altair uses the op-codes of the Intel chip. Many of these are of marginal use in a general-purpose machine, such as RETURN (from subroutine) ON ZERO, RETURN ON MINUS, RETURN ON PLUS, and the like. Simple instructions like ADD take four words:

> 041 123 001

206

(add contents of word 523 to the accumulator).



The machine has a HALT instruction (166), but on execution it tends to lock the entire machine with all console lights on and all switches inoperative. This condition can be relieved by hitting STOP and RESET simultaneously. For purposes of halting execution, a better combination is:

A 303 A+1 A A+2 ---

(unconditional jump to current location) which ties the machine into a short loop, during which the manual STOP switch can be used.

The machine is quite reliable, but its circulating storage is not protected by parity checks, and the loss or gain of a single bit can be disastrous.

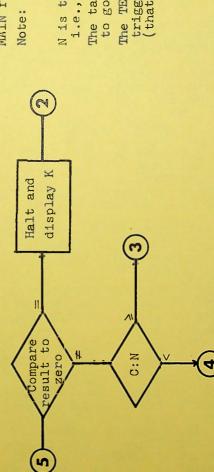
Promotion for the machine has leaned toward overenthusiasm and hyperbole. For example, "It has 78 basic machine instructions with variances up to 200 instructions. That's enough to program all the traffic lights in a major city." The relation between the number of op-codes and any specific application is obscure.

Or, "Number of subroutine levels: 65,000." To call a subroutine takes 3 words; to return from a subroutine takes one word, and the return address (two words) must be stored somewhere. Thus, even with a full size machine with 65,000 words, it is difficult to determine just what the advertised statement could mean.

Additionally, the reference manual is in need of extensive re-writing; the explanations of the actions for the various op-codes are poorly written and hard to decipher even by experienced programmers.

(from the manual) "...the Altair 8800 can execute a six instruction addition program approximately 30,000 times in one second." This is true, but implies that the operating speed is 180,000 instructions per second; for a typical program, it will be more like 116,000 instructions per second.

Again, "Zero bit-this bit is set to l if the result of <u>certain instructions</u> is zero..." (underscores mine). The user of a computer wants to know the precise action of every op-code, and those things that can affect any bit.



MAIN flowchart for Penny Flipping I.

the bar at the left end of a rectangle denotes "go to a subroutine."

N is the chief parameter of the problem; i.e., the size of the stack of pennies. The tables are 80 words each, allowing N to go to 80.

The TEST subroutine returns 1 in a trigger for failure; O for success (that is, the stack returns to all heads).

The original Penny Flipping problem seems ideally suited to the machine. Given a stack of N pennies, all heads up. The top penny is turned over, then the top two pennies, the top three, and so on until the entire stack is turned over, after which the top one is turned over, the top two, and so on. The number of flips is counted, and the result is the functional value for that N. The results for various values of N are as follows:

N	f	N	f
1234567890	2 3 9 11 24 35 28 31 80 60	11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20	121 119 116 195 75 79 204 323 228

Flowcharts are given for this problem, to extend the function from 21 to 80. Since the counts of the number of flips can go over 127 (the limit of the size of a positive number in one word), a two-word counter is set up, and subroutine C shows the logic of incrementing those counters (the scheme readily extends to larger counters).

We begin by allocating storage as follows:

Table T, words 020 through 137 octal (this table will contain the stack of pennies, one penny per word).

Table TC (T copy), words 140 through 257 octal.

K counters, words 002 and 003.

N, word 004. C, word 005.

Temporary storage, word 006. Trigger (for TEST), word 010.

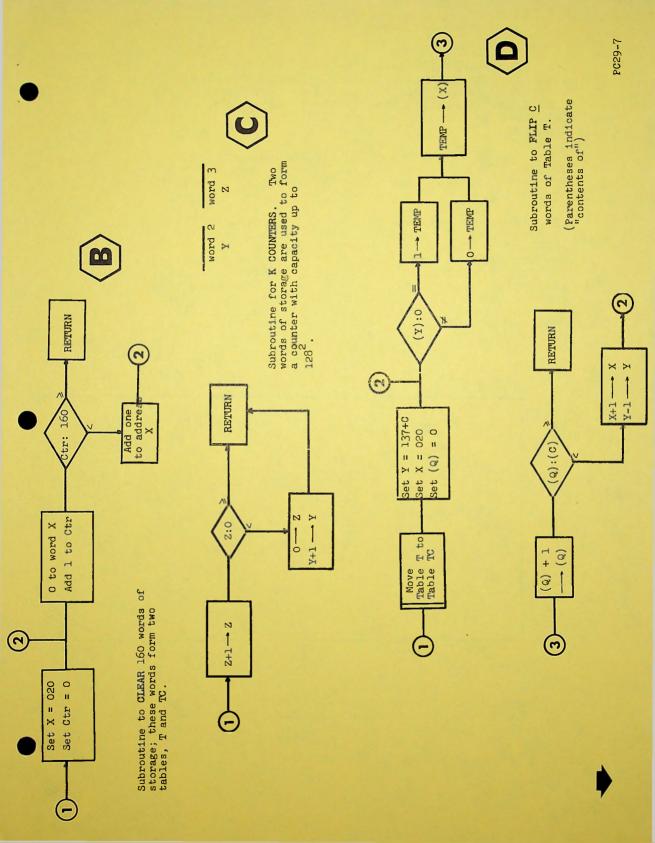
Counter, word Oll.

The MAIN flowchart (A) shows the overall logic of the problem. The program begins (as must all programs on the Altair that use subroutines) by setting the stack pointer:

> 061 377 003

to provide a place in storage (in this case at octal 1777) for stacking return addresses for all subroutines.

N will be initialized to 6, at Reference 2. T and TC are cleared to zero. The flowchart for this subroutine (B) shows a loop that counts to 160. This is possible, but it might be easier (if this is your first approach to the machine) to form two loops, each counting to 80)10.



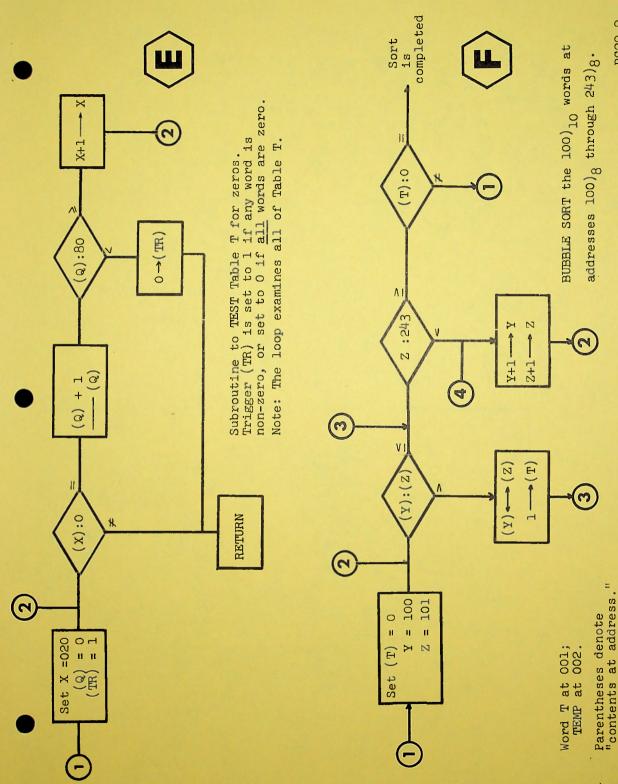
Subroutine (D) (FLIP) performs the heart of the problem. It begins by calling on another subroutine (for which the flowchart is not given) to move table T to TC. Then a loop is initialized to the first address of Table T (020) and the last address of Table TC (137 + C), to flip C words. The counter Q is word Oll.

The TEST subroutine (E) examines all of Table T for zeros. The flipping task is completed when N words of the table are again zero, but it is simpler to test the entire table.

The complete program, written in straightforward fashion (that is, not using tricky coding) occupies about 400 words of storage, plus some 170 words of data. It executes at an average rate of 80 flips per second, so that the total run for N=74 is 70 seconds (the result is 5475). For each value of N, the machine is halted, and the contents of the counters is displayed. For N=74, this will read as 052 and 143; these results in octal are changed to 42 and 99 (decimal), and the result is then $42 \cdot 128 + 99 = 5475$.

Penny			ve also been n (see PC25-1		
Allan Herschderfer and Charles McCord, April 1975, on a	44	f 163540 20064 31122 51040 11480 16128 450296	N 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 55	f 88685 4860 15088 518880 43776 25284 82000 5100 73008 2270520 517083	FJG, May 1975, on the Altair 8800

For another example of the level that most users of the Altair 8800 will work at, consider the task of sorting one hundred numbers. The given data is stored in words $100)_8$ through $243)_8$, and we will produce a machine language code to bubble sort it.



PC29-9

Bubble (or interchange) sorting is considered by many (including Knuth) to be a dirty technique that should not be encouraged in any way. Granted that bubble sorting is crude, inelegant, unsophisticated, and (for more than a few items to be sorted) highly wasteful of machine time, it still exists and has definite virtues. For one, it is simple and easy to code in any language, and hence easy to debug and test. Its inherent inefficiency hurts you only if the number of things to be sorted is large (say, over 30) or the number of sets of those things is large (say, over 1000), or both. Otherwise, the programmer is choosing to swap machine time (and possibly storage space) for brain strain, or for a reduction in elapsed time—and that swap can be profitable. Finally, the technique is widely used, and there should be no hidden or suppressed tricks in our trade.

The accompanying flowchart (F) shows the logic of the bubble sort, together with a complete code for it (G). The code, like the technique itself, is simple, using no esoteric coding tricks, nor any of the hidden registers of the Altair. If one chooses to use an inefficient technique, then it is inconsistent to try to use it in a sophisticated way.

Finally, a problem is offered that is particularly suited to the Altair 8800, but is solvable on any machine. The accompanying diagram (H) shows 32 8-bit words. The words are indexed at the left, from 00 through 37 octal. The individual bits in the words are also indexed at the top, from 000 through 111 binary. The heavy line divides each word into two parts. The 5-bit part is the address of one of the 32 words; the 3-bit part addresses one of the bits of that word. For example, the word at 00000 addresses the 5th bit from the left in word 10011 (that bit is circled in the diagram).

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The 32 words are to be scanned in turn, and each indicated bit is to be changed, from 1 to 0, or from 0 to 1. The implementation of this simple situation is a nice exercise in bit manipulation. The Problem is: Will the process converge for any starting combination of bits (other than the obvious case in which all 256 bits are initially zero)?

503 001 504 000 505 076 506 100 507 062 510 134 511 001	65 002 66 000 67 062 70 000 71 000 72 076 73 001 74 062 75 001 76 000	640 641 642 643 644 645 646 647 650 651 652	072 137 001 074 062 137 001 062 157 001 062 170
512 062 151 001 600	77 072 137 001 001 002 326 243 004 372 005 006 001 007 072 100 001 11 000 12 306 13 100 12 15 257 16 001 100	652 653 654 655 656 657 60 657 60 67:0 Code for the Alto bubble sort from 100-243)8 ascending order	170 303 4-R-2 133 001 Continue

	/	\ \\ \\ /	\ŝ` _j	6%	(\$)	/s/	(\$? _/	\\$/.	<u>_</u>
	/	/	7	/	/	/	/	γ,	/
00000	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	
00001	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	
00010	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	
00011	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	
00100	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	
00101	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	
00110	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	
00111	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	
01000	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	
01001	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	
01010	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	
01011	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	
01100	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	
01101	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	
01110	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	
01111	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	
10000	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	
10001	ı	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	
10010	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	
10011	1	0	1	0 (1	0	1	0	
10100	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	
10101	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	
10110	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	
10111	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	
11000	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	
11001	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	
11010	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	
11011	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	
11100	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	
11101	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	
11110	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	
11111	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	



NOTONE Research

The game of NOTONE was proposed by Walter Koetke in the first issue (Nov/Dec 1974) of Creative Computing. Two players take turns tossing two dice. When it is a player's turn, he tosses the dice and establishes his point. He may then toss the dice as many times as he wishes, and his score for the turn is the sum of the tosses. If his point reappears, however, his turn ends then with a score of zero. A game consists of ten rounds for each player.

A program (in BASIC) for the game was presented in the Mar/Apr 1975 issue, written by Robert Puopolo. The printout showed a score of 345 for the human player, indicating an average score of 34.5 per turn.

What is the proper strategy of play for this game?

If the point is 7, there is a .50 probability of making a run of 3 tosses before a 7 reappears. If the point is 2 (or 12) however, one can expect a run of 24 tosses before the reappearance of the 2 (or 12), again with a .50 probability. These probabilities are summarized in the accompanying table (A). For example, with a point of 5 (or 9), and a .45 probability, a run of 6 tosses can be expected. Thus, the attempted run at each turn is controlled by the point that is first made, as well as the probability level that will maximize the sum. Notice that although the probability of a run of a given length is the same for points 3 and 11, the expected sum is not. For example, if a .60 probability is used, the expected run for 3 or 11 is 9 tosses, but the 9 tosses starting with 11 will total higher than the 9 tosses starting with 3.

The point about dice is that they turn two flat distributions (that is, two distributions uniformly distributed in the range from 1 to 6) into a peaked distribution from 2 to 12 with these theoretical frequencies:

2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 1/36 2/36 3/36 4/36 5/36 6/36 5/36 4/36 3/36 2/36 1/36

	.80					45	
234567	7 4 2 1 1	10 5 3 2 1 1 1	1364321	18 96 54 -3	24 12 7 5 4	28 14 9 5 4	32 16 10 7 6

A

:30

Most problems involving dice tosses (those that do not yield to an analytic solution) are best explored by computer. At times, however, some research can be done by hand, given access to suitable dice tosses. The accompanying table (B) gives 1800 tosses of two dice, for which the observed frequencies are as follows:

2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 37 98 132 200 247 302 268 216 154 98 48

(the chi-squared value for goodness-of-fit is 8.432.)

In the traditional game of craps, the spots appearing on two dice are added. If they were multiplied, the tosses would take this distribution:

1	1/36	8	2/36	18	2/36
2	2/36	9	1/36	20	2/36
3	2/36	10	2/36	24	2/36
4	3/36	12	4/36	25	1/36
5	2/36	15 16	2/36	30	2/36
6	4/36	16	1/36	36	1/36

Suppose, then, we define the game of CRAPS2 as follows:

The player with the dice makes a toss. If he gets a square (1, 4, 9, 16, 25, or 36) he loses but retains the dice. If he throws 6 or 12, he wins. In all other cases, he has established his point and continues to throw. If he makes his point before the appearance of either 6 or 12, he wins; otherwise he loses.

The usual dice questions are then:

- 1. What are the odds against winning?
- 2. What are the odds against making the points of 2, 3, 5, 8, 10, 15, 18, 20, 24, and 30?
- 3. What are the expected lengths of runs between successive appearances of each of the 18 possible numbers?

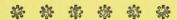
Traditionally, dice are used by twos. Suppose they were tossed three at a time, with the spots added? The possibilities then range from 3 to 18 with these frequencies:

3	1/216	8	21/216	13	21/216
4	3/216	9	25/216	14	15/216
5	6/216	10	27/216	15	10/216
6	10/216	11	27/216	16	6/216
7	15/216	12	25/216	17	3/216
		18	1/216		

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The same questions (above) could then be raised for CRAPS3, played like normal craps but with these variations: On the first toss, totals of 10 or 11 are an immediate win; totals of 3 or 18 are an immediate loss. Otherwise, a point has been established, and the player keeps tossing until he makes his point (a win) or until 10 or 11 appears (a loss).

Finally, the game of NOTONE can be played with two (multiplicative) dice, or with three (additive) dice, and the proper strategy for these two games is to be determined.



A computer run was made on tosses of two dice, to determine empirically the length of strings between successive appearances of each possible number. following table shows the statistics gathered on 36000 tosses:

Point	N	Sum	Sum of squares
234567890	975 2006 3000 4057 4984 5968 5094 3969	27278 33753 35543 35850 35985 35978 36025 35907 35583	1059380 984789 766037 598062 474381 393352 469881 615531 777941
11 12	1956 992	33940 27396	1003532 1055050

For example, the point 2 appeared 975 times; the sum of the lengths of the strings of tosses between successive 2's was 27278 and the sum of the squares of those string lengths was 1059380. Thus, the average run length between successive 2's was 27.977 and the standard deviation was 26.93.

0

N-SERIE

Compinatorial

There are 63 numbers that are made up of the factors 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, and 13, each taken no more than once. For example, eight of the 63 numbers are:

7 = 7 39 = 3 x 13 143 = 11 x 13 154 = 2 x 7 x 11 1365 = 3 x 5 x 7 x 13 2002 = 2 x 7 x 11 x 13 15015 = 3 x 5 x 7 x 11 x 13 30030 = 2 x 3 x 5 x 7 x 11 x 13

These 63 numbers total 96767; their mean is 1535.9841 and their standard deviation is 4210.7.

- (1) What will be the sum, mean, and standard deviation for the 63 numbers similarly made up of the factors 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, and 17?
- (2) Write a Fortran program that will utilize six factors (I, J, K, L, M, and N, all integers, all relatively prime to each other) and calculate the sum, mean, and standard deviation of the 63 numbers that can be formed.

- Log 29 1.462397997898956087332846762969254991254294417887154
 - Ln 29 3.367295829986474027183272032361911605494512913922744
 - √29 5.385164807134504031250710491540329556295120161644789
 - **₹**29 3.072316825685847293312637982105597485502783238876096
 - **√**29 1.961009057454548013206356850097824143767813931689090
 - ¹√29 1.400360331291395876495106634543574736747598468978608
 - ¹⁰⁰29 1.034246309741025914720034059677913189875415336590493
 - e²⁹ 3931334297144.042074388620580843527685796942333443902 185643090885541997881948228824965987972
 - π^{29} 261424513284460.8709628724332156234476313094693009254 5656390579769711436771704172403172432
- tan⁻¹ 29 1.536327225795388605121153267285351612646716182990619

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